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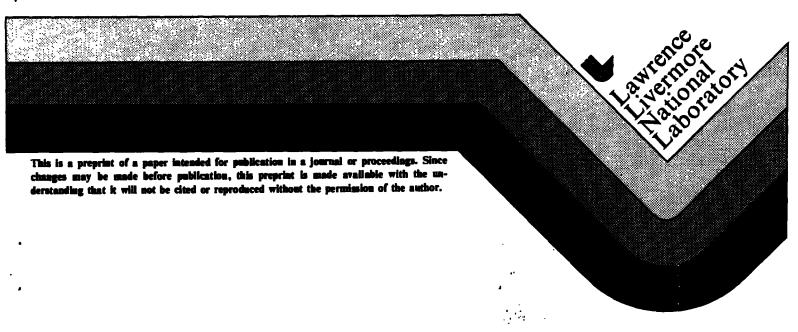
Experimental and Modeling Results

E. W. Kaiser C. K. Westbrook W. J. Pitz

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Acetaldehyde Oxidation in the Negative Temperature Coefficient Regime: Experimental and Modeling Results

E. W. Kaiser Ford Motor Company

C. K. Westbrook
W. J. Pitz
Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory

Abstract

Acetaldehyde oxidation at temperatures between 550 and 900 K has been studied in experiments carried out in a low pressure, static reactor and in numerical modeling calculations using a detailed chemical kinetic reaction mechanism. The results of the experimental study were used to construct and validate the reaction mechanism, which was then used to examine acetaldehyde oxidation in the negative temperature coefficient regime. This mechanism was also tested against independent measurements of acetaldehyde oxidation carried out by Baldwin, Matchan and Walker. The overall rate of reaction and the properties of the negative temperature coefficient regime were found to be sensitive to the competition between radical decomposition reactions and the addition of molecular oxygen to acetyl and methyl radicals. Implications of the results for future kinetic modeling of engine knock are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The maximum compression ratio at which current spark-ignition engines can operate is limited because of the occurrence of knock. Since operation at higher compression ratio gives increased fuel efficiency, suppression of knock is a critical engine design goal [1]. One theory suggests that low temperature oxidation reactions in the end gas of the cylinder, which occur in the temperature range 500 K to 900 K, control the hot autoignition responsible for knock. This theory is based on the observation of cool flames and the existence of organic products characteristic of low temperature oxidation in the cylinder end gas prior to the occurrence of knock in engines [2-5]. To assess the importance of low temperature oxidation reactions in the initiation of knock, a better understanding of the chemical kinetic reaction mechanisms in this temperature range is needed. In addition, the well known negative temperature coefficient in the rate of consumption of organic fuels in this temperature regime leads to a variety of interesting oscillatory combustion phenomena whose chemical kinetic mechanisms are also not completely understood [6-8].

Aldehydes are reactive intermediate products formed during the low temperature oxidation of hydrocarbon fuels, and the determination of comprehensive reaction mechanisms [9] requires knowledge of aldehyde oxidation. Acetaldehyde is an observed intermediate in the oxidation of many fuel molecules and is particularly important in the combustion of ethanol, an alternate fuel and a cofuel in gasohol. Aldehydes also provide a source of alkyl radicals, and a study of acetaldehyde oxidation provides a method for testing and improving existing mechanisms of methyl radical oxidation in the low temperature regime.

This paper describes the results of a combined experimental and numerical modeling study of the oxidation of acetaldehyde in the temperature range 550-900 K. The experiments were carried out in a static reactor using techniques which have been applied previously to propionaldehyde oxidation [10]. A detailed chemical kinetic reaction mechanism has been developed to describe the experimental data, which includes the rate of acetaldehyde consumption and the yields of major intermediate and final product species. The results of our studies, which span the negative temperature coefficient region (553-713 K), complement those of other workers [11,12] who modeled acetaldehyde oxidation only in the higher temperature regime ($T \ge 1000 \text{ K}$). In addition, a recent study [13] of acetaldehyde oxidation in a continuously stirred tank reactor (cstr) included kinetic modeling analysis which is consistent with the present work.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

The oxidation experiments were carried out in a static, boric acid coated, one liter Pyrex reactor which was enclosed in a vacuum chamber and coupled to a mass spectrometer. The experimental apparatus, procedure, and boric acid passivation technique have been described in detail in a previous publication [10]. As a check of the surface passivation, the rate of reaction of a mixture of 60 torr $H_2 + 150$ torr 0_2 was measured at 500 C at the beginning of each day of experiments. The maximum rate of H_2 consumption was measured to be 5.6 (\pm 1.2) torr/minute with an induction period of \approx 1.5 min, in satisfactory agreement with the values measured for a similar mixture by Baldwin and Major [13a] (7.1 ± 0.4) torr/min and 1.5 min, respectively). Kinetic measurements were performed

at 553 K and 713 K using two initial oxygen concentrations $(7 \times 10^{16} \text{ and } 8.3 \times 10^{17} \text{ molecules/cm}^3)$ and one CH₃CHO concentration $(4.7 \times 10^{16} \text{ molecules/cm}^3)$. The total gas density was maintained at approximately $8.7 \times 10^{17} \text{ molecules/cm}^3$ by adding either N₂ or argon to the fuel-oxygen mixture when using the lower O₂ concentration.

Each experiment was started by injecting premixed fuel, 0_2 , and diluent into the reactor. Beginning approximately 1-2 seconds after the injection, the CH₃CHO and major product concentrations were monitored as a function of time by molecular-beam mass spectrometry (MS). This allowed direct detection of CH₃O₂H (48 amu), H₂O₂ (34 amu), CH₃OH (31 amu), CH₂O (30 amu), CO (28 amu), and H₂O (18 amu). Each indicated mass number was essentially free of interference from other species under most experimental conditions.

During certain experiments, the entire contents of the reactor were removed after a selected reaction time for gas chromatographic (GC) analysis. This allowed measurement of the concentrations of CH₄, C₂H₆, CO₂, and CH₃CHO. It also provided a cross check of the concentrations of CH₃OH, CO, and CH₂O obtained from the mass spectrometer. The CO₂ and CH₃CHO parent masses both occur at 44 amu, and the rates of CH₃CHO consumption could not be determined directly from this mass. However, the GC analysis established and the modeling analysis confirmed that the CO₂ yield was constant throughout the course of the reaction. This measured yield was used to calculate and subtract the CO₂ interference from the 44 amu peak, providing a detailed concentration-time profile of CH₃CHO which agreed well with the isolated points determined by GC analysis. All product species concentrations were obtained by standardization of the MS or GC with the pure compound.

In repeat measurements of product yields and in cross comparisons of GC and MS data, the yields of most species were typically reproducible to $\pm 15\%$ of their mean values. The concentration of H_20 contained an additional absolute uncertainty of $\pm 2.5 \times 10^{15}$ molecules/cm³ because of the large background noise in the MS at the parent mass. While the relative CH302H concentration was reproducible to $\pm 10\%$, its absolute concentration is estimated to have a 25% uncertainty because of the difficulty of handling this relatively unstable compound in pure form for standardization of the mass spectrometer. The H_20_2 concentration is also uncertain by approximately 25% for similar reasons. Product yields were measured at 553 K and 713 K using both argon and N_2 diluent gas during the low 0_2 concentration runs; the yields were identical for both diluents.

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

During each experimental run at 553 K, the initial CH₃CHO concentration decreased exponentially with reaction time over a factor of 2.5, after the end of an induction period (see Figure 1). The effective first order decay rate constants determined from these experiments had standard deviations of $\pm 5\%$ from the mean values upon repeat measurements, and the plotted curves are compilations of several experiments. However, the induction periods varied substantially with temperature and initial 0_2 density. At low initial 0_2 concentration, the induction period at 553 K was 4-10 seconds, while for the high 0_2 concentration the induction period at 553 K was reduced to 2-4 seconds. At 713 K, there was no observable induction period, and the CH₃CHO decay

curve was still nearly exponential at low initial 02 concentration (see Figure 2). Changing the inert diluent from argon to nitrogen produced no change in either the CH3CHO consumption rates or the induction periods at either temperature. At the higher initial 02 concentration, the decay rate was non-exponential at 713 K as shown in Fig. 2. Under these conditions, the initial decay rate was very rapid but then slowed after approximately 5 seconds. Because of the very rapid initial rate, product concentrations could be measured reliably only after approximately 50% of the initial acetaldehyde had been consumed, and the initial consumption rate of CH3CHO was uncertain.

Figures 3-5 each show the mean product yield curves obtained from several repeat measurements of three initial conditions. Data in these figures are plotted as a function of the amount of CH3CHO consumed for both initial O2 concentrations at 553 K (Figs. 3 and 5) and for the low O2 concentration at 713 K (Fig. 4). Table I presents the yields of products observed after consumption of 58% of the initial CH3CHO for the high 0_2 concentration experiments at 713 K. As discussed in the Experimental Procedure section, the measured product yields have uncertainties of approximately ±15% from the mean curves for all species with the exception of H2O2, H2O and CH3O2H whose error limits are somewhat larger. In every case, the total amount of carbon contained in the products is 85-100% of that in the CH3CHO consumed. Considering the error in the measured concentrations, this carbon balance is satisfactory. The yield of products is constant throughout the range of acetaldehyde conversions studied to within the ±15% measurement uncertainty for all molecules except CH_3O_2H and possibly CH_3OH . The yield of

CH₃0₂H increases later in the reaction by a significant amount. The yield of CH₃0H increases by a much smaller amount later in the reaction and may be nearly constant considering the 15% uncertainty.

In order to interpret these data, the principal reaction paths must be examined in detail. Competition between radical decomposition and reversible addition of molecular oxygen is a typical feature of low temperature oxidation. Important reactions of this type include

$$CH_3CO + M = CH_3 + CO + M$$
 (12)

$$CH_3CO + O_2 = CH_3CO_3$$
 (13)

$$CH_3 + O_2 + M = CH_3O_2 + M$$
 (101)

At temperatures below 750 K, addition of 0_2 to the methyl and acetyl radicals is very important not only in determining the product distributions but also in controlling the overall reaction rate, because the adduct species have a significant impact on the chain branching in the oxidation mechanism. In each case, one radical can produce one (propagation) or more (branching) product radicals. For methyl consumption, the main branching sequence of reactions is

$$CH_3 + O_2 = CH_3O_2$$
 (101)

$$CH_3O_2 + CH_3CHO = CH_3O_2H + CH_3CO$$
 (10)

$$CH_3O_2H = CH_3O + OH$$
 (29)

For the acetyl radical, the sequence of reactions is

$$CH_3CO + O_2 = CH_3CO_3$$
 (13)

$$CH_3CO_3 + CH_3CHO = CH_3CO_3H + CH_3CO$$
 (8)

$$CH_3CO_3H = CH_3CO_2 + OH$$
 (15)

$$CH_3CO_2 = CH_3 + CO_2$$
 (21)

The decompositions of the methyl hydroperoxide and the peroxyacetic acid provide rapid growth of the radical pool. The experimental observation of significant amounts of CH₃0₂H in the products at 553 K confirms the presence of methylperoxy radicals and the existence of reactions 10 (or 22) in the reaction mechanism. CH₃0₂H is relatively stable, having a measured half life of approximately 80 sec at 553 K in our reactor (see Appendix). In contrast, peroxyacetic acid is too unstable to be present at sufficient quantity for measurement, having an estimated half life of approximately 1 sec [14].

Examination of reactions 12 and 13 suggests that changing the initial O₂ concentration should change the CO₂ yield relative to that of CO. Comparison of Figs. 3 and 5 shows that increasing the 0_2 concentration does indeed increase the CO₂ and decrease the CO yield at 553 K, although the magnitude of the change is less than expected as will be discussed later. Increasing the temperature at constant initial 02 and CH3CH0 density (compare Fig. 3 with 4 and Fig. 5 with Table I) drastically reduces the CO₂ yield. This results from the fact that the exothermic, reversible equilibrium of reaction 13, which strongly favors the acetylperoxy adduct at 553 K, is driven to the left at 713 K while the high activation energy decomposition reaction 12 occurs much more rapidly. Therefore, little CH3CO3 is present to lead to CO2. The effect of O₂ concentration on the competition between reactions 12 and 13 is still visible at 713 K, however, and the CO2 yield is substantially greater at high initial O2 concentration. Note that this CO2 formation mechanism differs from that at high temperatures where the only substantial path for production of CO₂ is the reaction

$$CO + OH = CO_2 + H$$
 (67)

Thus, there is a temperature regime near 550 K in the present case where a low temperature sequence of reactions produces CO_2 and a high temperature regime above about 900 K where reaction $67 \text{ produces } CO_2$. However, in the intermediate region of about 650-850 K, CO_2 production takes place only very slowly.

Comparison of the data at constant temperature but different 0_2 concentration (Figs. 3 and 5 or Fig. 4 and Table I) shows that increasing the 0_2 concentration raises the yield of CH₂O relative to that of CH₃OH, thereby increasing the ratio CH₂O/CH₃OH. This agrees with the expected competition between reactions 9 and 88

$$CH_{3}O + CH_{3}CHO = CH_{3}OH + CH_{3}CO$$
 (9)

$$CH_{3}O + O_{2} = CH_{2}O + HO_{2}$$
 (88)

in which methoxy radicals are converted into methanol and formaldehyde with relative yields which depend on the 0_2 concentration.

Methane is formed by the abstraction of a hydrogen atom from CH₃CHO

$$CH_3CHO + CH_3 = CH_4 + CH_3CO$$
 . (7)

Increasing the 0_2 concentration decreases the observed CH₄ yield at both temperatures. This results from the shifting of the equilibrium in reaction 101 to the right, which decreases the methyl radical concentration. Conversely, increasing the temperature shifts this equilibrium to the left, forming more methyl radicals and increasing the methane yield. The observed changes in C_2H_6 concentration follow similar trends with changes in temperature and 0_2 concentration since ethane is also formed from methyl radicals by the recombination reaction

$$CH_3 + CH_3 = C_2H_6$$
 (-102)

The experimental results show the presence of significant amounts of H_2O under all conditions, and substantial H_2O_2 at 713 K when the higher initial O_2 concentration is used. Both products are expected to be formed in hydrogen abstraction reactions by OH and HO_2 radicals

$$OH + CH_3CHO = H_2O + CH_3CO$$
 (4)

$$HO_2 + CH_3CHO = H_2O_2 + CH_3CO$$
 (6)

and these observations confirm that OH and HO_2 are present during low temperature oxidation. Finally, no $\mathrm{CH}_3\mathrm{O}_2\mathrm{H}$ is observed at the higher temperature. This results from the fact that the homogeneous decomposition of $\mathrm{CH}_3\mathrm{O}_2\mathrm{H}$ via reaction 29 should become very fast by 713 K. At this temperature, we estimate a half life of approximately 0.02 sec based on our measured value at 553 K and an activation energy of 43 kcal/mol [14]. In addition, the production rate of $\mathrm{CH}_3\mathrm{O}_2\mathrm{H}$ is reduced at 713 K, since the equilibrium of reaction 101 is shifted substantially toward the CH_3 + O_2 side as temperature increases.

Thus, a low temperature oxidation mechanism containing the above reactions can explain the major qualitative features of the measured product yields. We now turn to a quantitative modeling of these experiments using a detailed reaction mechanism.

NUMERICAL MODEL AND REACTION MECHANISM

Acetaldehyde oxidation under the conditions described above has been simulated by assuming that the reaction takes place at constant volume and pressure. The heat of reaction was continuously removed from the system, maintaining a constant temperature. Since heat losses occur in the experiments only through the surface of the reaction vessel, spatial gradients in the temperature occur in a direction normal to the surface. However, if the pressure is low and the rate of heat release is small, these temperature gradients within the vessel are estimated to be very small (≤ 10 K), and they have been neglected in the present modeling analysis. Only homogeneous gas phase reactions were considered, neglecting reactions which might occur at the surface of the reactor.

The chemical kinetics rate equations were integrated in time using the HCT program [15]. The detailed chemical kinetic reaction mechanism was assembled by combining a high temperature ($T \ge 900$ K) mechanism for C_1 - C_4 hydrocarbon oxidation [16] with other reactions which are generally believed to play a part in acetaldehyde oxidation for intermediate temperatures (500 K \le T \le 900 K). Some of these reactions have been presented in the previous section. Preliminary computations indicated that the C_3 and C_4 submechanisms could be deleted from the mechanism, since the predicted formation rates of C_3 and C_4 species from radical recombination reactions in these experiments were insignificant. The resulting mechanism was used to simulate the experimental data already discussed. Whenever possible, literature values were used for reaction rates. When no values were available, estimates were made by analogy to similar reactions. In some cases, rate constants were available only at room temperature, and activation energies have been

estimated by using reasonable preexponential factors. The final reaction mechanism is given in Table II, showing both the forward and reverse rate parameters. Reverse reaction rates were computed from the forward rates and the appropriate equilibrium constants [17,18].

The application of this mechanism to the simulation of the experimental results indicated that many of the elementary reactions were insignificant over the present temperature range. Therefore, these steps could have been eliminated. However, the current mechanism is intended for future applications in which the temperatures can vary from 500 K to above 2000 K. As a result, mechanistic paths which may become important only at higher temperatures were retained.

COMPUTED RESULTS

A. Overall rate of reaction and product yields

Each of the four sets of initial conditions from the experimental study was simulated using the reaction mechanism in Table II, and a sensitivity analysis was carried out to determine which reactions had the greatest influence on the computed results. The computed rates of acetaldehyde consumption are compared with the experimental data in Figs. 1 and 2. Overall, the agreement is fairly good. The computed consumption rates for high initial 0_2 concentration at both 553 K and 713 K agree well with the observed fuel consumption rates. For the diluted case (low initial 0_2 concentration) at 713 K, the computed acetaldehyde consumption rate was also very close to the observations. However, the model results for low initial 0_2 at 553 K indicate a rate of reaction which is approximately one half of that measured experimentally. No induction period is computed for either case at 713 K. At 553 K the calculated induction periods are

about 3 seconds for the undiluted case and 14 seconds for the diluted case; these induction periods are consistent with the experimental data although the calculated value at low initial 0_2 is somewhat longer than the experimental value, which may be affected by heterogeneous initiation reactions.

The computed product yields are compared with the experimental results in Figures 3-5 and in Table I. All of the observed trends are reproduced by the model, and the yields of all organic products agree with the experimental values to within ~50% under all experimental conditions. The ratio of CO to CO2 production increases dramatically with increasing temperature, due to the competition between Reactions 12 and 13 as discussed earlier. Computed yields of oxygenated species (CH3OH, CH2O, and CH₂0₂H) typically agree to within ± 50% with the experimental results for all initial conditions. This indicates that the predicted levels of CH₃O and CH₃O₂ are approximately correct and that the competition between reactions 9 and 88, which controls the relative yields of CH₂O and CH₃OH, is adequately treated in the mechanism. Predicted methane and ethane yields are very accurate at 713 K, where methane is a major product, and deviate by less than 30% from the experimental values at 553 K where the concentrations are much smaller. The experimental yield of methane changes by a factor of 250 and that of the ethane by more than 700 over the initial conditions studied; we believe that the predicted trends are in good agreement with experiment over this wide range of observed concentrations.

B. Reactions of CH₃, CH₃O, and CH₃O₂

The predicted methane and ethane levels depend strongly on the methyl radical concentration, being produced by the reactions

$$CH_3CHO + CH_3 = CH_3CO + CH_4$$
 (7)
 $CH_3 + CH_3 = C_2H_6$ (-102)

The CH₃ density and its variation as a function of temperature are very dependent on the equilibrium constant for reaction 101, the addition of O₂ to CH₃. Under the present conditions, this reaction is equilibrated at 713 K, so when the equilibrium is shifted to the right (by increasing the initial O2), forming more CH3O2, the overall rate of chain branching increases markedly, leading to an increase in the rate of fuel consumption and decreases in the methane and ethane yields. The forward rate of reaction 101 was fixed originally at the experimentally determined third order rate [106]. Both the forward and reverse rate expressions were varied to produce the best overall agreement between the computed and experimental fuel consumption rates and product yields of methane and ethane. The computed sensitivity to this reaction was greater than any of the others in the mechanism. At 713 K the overall rate of fuel consumption as well as the product distributions depend strongly on the equilibrium constant for reaction 101; varying both forward and reverse reaction rate coefficients simultaneously by factors of two relative to the values in Table II produced computed results essentially identical to those summarized in Figs. 2 and 4 and Table I. At 553 K, the reaction is not equilibrated, but the single most sensitive reaction is the addition step for reaction 101.

Khachatryan et al. [103] and Slagle and Gutman [112] have measured K_{eq} for reaction 101 over the temperature range 694-811 K. The results of both experimental studies agree closely with each other. Preliminary results from the present modeling study provided satisfactory agreement with the experimental data only when a value for K_{eq} was used which was smaller than the experimental value at 713 K by a factor of four. In particular, predicted yields of CH_4 and C_2H_6 were much too low and predicted overall rates of acetaldehyde consumption were much too high if the experimental values for K_{eq} were used in the model. However, model analysis of the data of Slagle and Gutman [112] indicated that the preliminary mechanism was overpredicting the consumption of CH_3O_2 by the reaction

$$CH_3O_2 + CH_3 = CH_3O + CH_3O$$
 . (23)

Similarly, in the acetaldehyde oxidation calculations, reaction 10

$$CH_3CHO + CH_3O_2 = CH_3CO + CH_3O_2H$$
 (10)

was also contributing substantially to the consumption of CH₃O₂. The rate of reaction 23 had been taken from the room temperature study of Parkes [32], assuming no temperature dependence of the reaction rate expression. However, it is possible that this reaction involves an addition step followed by the breaking of an 0-0 bond [113], for which a negative temperature dependence might be appropriate. In the final model mechanism indicated in Table II, the rate of reaction 23 is a factor of four smaller at the temperatures of this study than the room temperature value of Parkes. The original estimate of a rate expression for reaction 10 had been based on related measurements for reaction 84 with an activation energy of 9 kcal/mole. Computed results were found to agree

better with experimental data if the rate of reaction 10 was reduced at both 553 K and 713 K to fit an expression

 $k_{10} = 3.57 \times 10^9 \exp(-5050/RT) \text{ cm}^3/\text{mole-sec.}$

As a result of reducing the rates of the alternative reactions consuming CH_3O_2 (i.e. reactions 10 and 23), values of k_{101} and k_{eq} for reaction 101 consistent with experimentally determined results could be used in the model calculations.

The temperature dependence of K_{eq} for reaction 101 in Table II is very slightly less than that determined by Khachatryan et al. [103] and by Slagle and Gutman [112] over their higher temperature range. However, in a recent measurement of the heat of formation of CH_3O_2 at 298 K, Kondo and Benson [111] estimate that $\Delta H_{298}(CH_3O_2) = 5.5 \pm 1$ kcal instead of the value 2.8 ± 1.6 determined by Khachatryan et al. If this recent value is correct, the overall exothermicity of the addition reaction could be as much as 5 kcal smaller than that obtained by Khachatryan et al. This would more than account for the slightly smaller temperature dependence indicated from our data. Our determination is based on a fit to a complicated kinetic mechanism, and it is possible that the fit is not unique, particularly at the lower temperature where the concentrations of CH_4 and C_2H_6 are very small. The equilibrium constant expression used, however, does fit the measured yields of methane and ethane and the overall rate well over the temperature range 553 - 713 K.

The stable intermediate and product species H_2O , CH_3OH , CH_4 , and H_2O_2 are all produced primarily by H atom abstraction from the acetaldehyde fuel by the reactions

$$CH_3CHO + OH = CH_3CO + H_2O$$
 (4)

$$CH_3CHO + CH_3O = CH_3CO + CH_3OH$$
 (9)

$$CH_3CHO + CH_3 = CH_3CO + CH_4 \tag{7}$$

$$CH_3CHO + HO_2 = CH_3CO + H_2O_2$$
 (6)

The rate of reaction 9 has been measured previously only at room temperature [26], where the rate of reaction 88 was used as a reference. More recent determinations [69,70] have modified the rate of reaction 88, so that reanalysis of the results of Kelly and Heicklen [26] would suggest a slight increase in the derived rate of reaction 9 at room temperature. By combining the rate required to fit our data at 553K and 713K with the revised room temperature value, the activation energy of this reaction can be estimated to be 1.28 kcal/mole. In addition, CH₃O₂H is formed by the two reactions

$$CH_3CHO + CH_3O_2 = CH_3CO + CH_3O_2H$$
 (10)

$$CH_3O_2 + HO_2 = CH_3O_2H + O_2$$
 (22)

It is possible to adjust the rates of reactions 6, 9, 10, 22, and 88 by ≤ 50% to improve the fit to the species product yields for any one set of experimental data. However, predicted product yields are higher than experimentally observed results in some cases and are lower in other cases. For example, the computed ratio of methanol to formaldehyde is somewhat too high in the 713 K diluted case and slightly too low in the undiluted case at the same temperature. Similarly, the computed ratio of C0 to C0₂ at 553 K is too high in the diluted case and too low in the undiluted case. The agreement between computed and experimental values for one or two particular species could be improved by varying several reaction rates, but these variations would cause the agreement for other species to

deteriorate. We have already discussed how the ratio of methanol to formaldehyde depends on the competition between reactions 9 and 88 of the methoxy radical. In the undiluted case at 553 K, more than 80% of the methoxy radical consumption takes place by reaction 88 with 02, while this path accounts for only 30% of the methoxy radical consumption in the diluted case. Variations in kg and k88 did improve the computed methanol and formaldehyde yields at 553 K, but these changes also accelerated the rate of fuel consumption for the undiluted case (Case 8 in Fig. 1) to an unacceptable degree while the rate of fuel consumption was unchanged in the diluted case (Case A in Fig. 1). The present kinetic mechanism therefore represents a weighted compromise over the experimental data used to test and evaluate the model.

C. Reactions determining the CO and CO₂ yields

In the low 0_2 case at 553K, the model underpredicts the $C0_2$ yield by about a factor of two, while the predicted $C0_2$ yield is somewhat too high in the high initial 0_2 case. During the computational sensitivity analysis, it was found that the production of $C0_2$ is controlled almost exclusively by the rate of reaction 13 relative to that of reaction 12. When the ratio k_{13}/k_{12} is increased, the ratio of $C0_2$ to C0 increases. Therefore, any change in k_{13} to improve the agreement at 553 K in one case results in worse agreement in the other case. An increase in k_{13} relative to k_{12} also has the effect of accelerating the rate of fuel consumption because of the increased chain branching as discussed earlier. If the rate constants for reactions 12 and 13 are both changed by the same factor, the mechanism predicts no change in either the product

yields or the overall rates of reaction. Thus, the mechanism in Table II is sensitive only to the relative values of k_{12} and k_{13} and not to their absolute values for changes of up to a factor of 100 in the rate constants.

The rates of both reactions 12 and 13 are uncertain in this pressure and temperature region. For the rate of reaction 12, we have chosen the high pressure value measured by Watkins and Word [107] multiplied by an estimated falloff parameter. The rate of reaction 13 was adjusted to give a reasonable fit to the CO_2/CO ratio for the high initial O_2 concentration experiments at 553 K. This fit to reaction 13, when combined with the room temperature measurement of this rate [28] yields a negative activation energy of 2.7 kcal/mole for the addition reaction. The magnitude of this negative activation energy is quite reasonable since negative activation energies of 2.0 and 2.2 kcal have been determined for addition of O_2 to ethyl [108] and n-propyl [109] radicals.

Another measurement of the rate constant for reaction 12 by 0'Neal and Benson [110] is available. The high pressure limiting rate determined by extrapolation from these low pressure measurements is much smaller than that of Watkins and Word, and the preexponential factor is abnormally low for a unimolecular reaction. However, the second order limiting rate constant determined by 0'Neal and Benson, which is a factor of 10 below the value used in Table II, was measured in the same temperature and pressure range used in our experiments. Thus, it is possible that the rate constant in Table II could be at least a factor of 10 too large. If a smaller value of the rate of reaction 12 were adopted, the rate constant for reaction 13 would have to be reduced by the same amount to maintain the same CO₂/CO

ratio and the same overall rate of acetaldehyde consumption. A reduction of this rate constant constant at 553 K would also be acceptable because it is likely that the reaction will have entered the second order falloff regime at this elevated temperature, even though at room temperature the rate appears to be pressure independent at 2-4 torr [28]. Support for this suggestion is provided by the observation that the addition of 0_2 to ethyl radicals is entering the falloff region at a pressure of about 10 torr and a temperature of 298 K [28].

Within the constraints placed on the kinetic mechanism in Table II by all four sets of experiments, it was not possible to find a single set of rate parameters which would bring these CO and ${\rm CO_2}$ values at 553 K into simultaneous agreement. This discrepancy may be the result of inadequacies in the reaction mechanism which are significant only at the lowest end of the temperature range being considered. A number of reactions involving ${\rm CH_3CO_3}$ are included in the reaction mechanism which do not involve H atom abstraction from acetaldehyde (Reactions 14-20), but the computations did not demonstrate sufficient sensitivity to these reaction rates to be able to refine this part of the mechanism. It is possible that additional reaction paths, omitted from the present mechanism, may contribute to the overall rate of reaction and the rate of ${\rm CO_2}$ production. In the high ${\rm O_2}$ case, the addition reaction

$$CH_3CO + O_2 = CH_3CO_3$$
 (13)

will be faster, and the omission of other low temperature reactions of the acetyl radical would not be as important, but at lower 0_2 concentrations, such omissions might become more significant.

If reactions 12 and 13 are the major paths for forming CO and CO_2 , the ratio CO_2/CO should be nearly proportional to the initial O_2 concentration as is predicted by the mechanism. Thus, the ratio is predicted to increase by approximately a factor of 9.4 when the initial O_2 concentration is increased by a factor of 11.8. The experimentally determined ratio, including the estimated $\pm 15\%$ error in the measured values, increases by only a factor of 1.8 \pm 0.8. This suggests the existence of a CO_2 formation mechanism, either homogeneous or surface-catalyzed, whose rate is not directly dependent on initial O_2 concentration. Possible homogeneous reactions which could fit this requirement are

$$CH_3CO + CH_3O_2 = CH_3CO_2 + CH_3O$$
 (154)

$$CH_3CO + HO_2 = CH_3CO_2 + OH$$
 (155)

followed by reaction 21. These reactions have not been observed but are analogous to the reaction of methyl radicals with CH_3O_2 (23) and HO_2 (100), which have very fast rate constants. Because the calculated steady-state concentrations of CH_3O_2 and HO_2 only increase by a factor of two when the initial O_2 increases by a factor of 12, these paths would provide a source of CO_2 formation which has a less than first order dependence on O_2 concentration. If the rates of these acetyl + RO_2 reactions are assumed equal to their methyl radical counterparts and no other reaction rates are changed, the calculated CO_2 yield remains essentially unchanged. This happens because reaction 13 consumes acetyl radicals to form CO_2 ten times faster than the sum of reactions 154 and 155 even at low initial O_2 concentration. However, as has been discussed previously, the rate constants for the addition of O_2 to CH_3CO and the

decomposition of CH₃CO may be considerably slower at 553 K than those presented in Table II. If these rates were slower by a factor of about 30, then the $\rm CO_2$ generation by reactions 154 and 155 would be significant and would double the $\rm CO_2$ yield at low initial $\rm O_2$ concentration. Calculations using such a revised mechanism show better agreement with the

observed oxygen dependence of the CO/CO2 ratio at 553 K.

A less than linear dependence of the rate of CO_2 formation on O_2 concentration has also been observed by Baldwin et al. [19], while studying the oxidation of propional dehyde at 713 K. At this temperature, the CO_2 yield is relatively small (\approx 4%). These authors suggest that this effect may result from a surface reaction forming CO_2 according to the overall rate expression:

$$\frac{d[CO_2]}{dt} = k_s [C_2H_5CHO] [O_2]^{0.5} . \qquad (156)$$

We did not vary the surface-to-volume ratio in these experiments and cannot draw conclusions about the contribution of heterogeneous reactions to product formation. However, a heterogeneous reaction of this type would be expected to have a positive activation energy, and the absolute rate of heterogeneous formation of $\rm CO_2$ should be slower at 553 K than at 713 K. The measured rate of consumption of acetaldehyde at 553 K and low initial $\rm O_2$ concentration is similar to that at 713 K. Thus, the $\rm CO_2$ yield at 553 K resulting from heterogeneous reaction should be of similar magnitude or smaller than that at 713 K. Since the total $\rm CO_1$ yield at 553 K is a factor of 30 greater than that at 713 K, it seems unlikely that a heterogeneous reaction of the type discussed above would be responsible for the unexplained variation of the $\rm CO_2/CO$ ratio with changes in $\rm O_2$

concentration. If reaction 156 were responsible, a value of $k_{\rm S}$ with an improbable negative 17.5 kcal/mole activation energy would be required. Note that the importance of either reactions 154, 155, or 156 decreases in comparison to reaction 13 at high initial 0_2 concentration.

In order to verify the importance of a proposed homogeneous formation of CO_2 via reactions 154 and 155, experimental measurements of these rates and of the rates of reactions 12 and 13 in the higher temperature falloff regime are needed. If such reactions can be observed, these reactions should be considered in any mechanism for modelling oxidation of aldehydes in this temperature regime.

MODELING OF THE NEGATIVE TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENT REGIME

A. Predicted rate of acetaldehyde consumption

The experimental results indicate a nearly equal rate of fuel consumption at both 553 K and 713 K for the case in which the lower initial 02 concentration is used. This observation is consistent with the existence of a region of negative temperature dependence in the overall rate of acetaldehyde oxidation, as reported previously by Baldwin et al. [20]. Once the computations provided reasonably accurate results at these two temperatures, the model was used to predict the rate of acetaldehyde oxidation over an extended range of temperature from about 550 K to nearly 900 K. Computations were carried out for both the diluted and undiluted cases, each at constant density, with the pressure varying with the temperature.

The maximum rates of fuel consumption for both the diluted and undiluted cases are plotted as Curves A and B, respectively, in Fig. 6.

These curves indicate clearly the existence of a region of negative temperature coefficient between about 650 K and 750 K, more pronounced in the diluted case. It is now well established that this negative temperature coefficient is the result of a gradual shift with temperature in the equilibrium of addition reactions such as reactions 13 and 101. As the equilibria shift away from the adduct sides, the sharply reduced rates of chain branching already discussed above result in a net reduction in the overall rate of fuel consumption. This phenomenon is related to the concept of a "ceiling temperature" discussed originally by Benson [21].

Recently, Morgan et al. [104] re-evaluated Benson's values for the ceiling temperature (that temperature at which $RO_2/R = 1$) using more recent thermochemical data. Their value of the ceiling temperature for $R = CH_3$ at 0.1 atm O_2 is 862 K, while the rate parameters in Table II provide a ceiling temperature for this equilibrium of 915 K. As noted earlier, this computationally determined ceiling temperature was based on the sensitivity of the computed rate of fuel consumption and the CH_4 and C_2H_6 yields to the equilibrium constant for reaction 101.

B. Test of the mechanism with independent experimental data

Also plotted as Curve C in Fig. 6 are the values of maximum reaction rate measured by Baldwin et al. [20] for mixtures with a composition of $CH_3CH0:0_2:N_2=2:30:28$, which were carried out at a constant pressure of 60 Torr throughout the temperature range. In their experiments, Baldwin et al. related the rate of reaction to the rate of pressure rise, measured in millimeters of Hg; over the temperature range studied $\Delta P \approx \Delta acetaldehyde$.

The mechanism in Table II was used to obtain model results for selected initial conditions studied by Baldwin et al. These calculated maximum rates of acetaldehyde consumption are plotted as Curve D in Figure 6. The predicted location of the negative temperature coefficient region agrees with that observed by Baldwin et al. The calculated maximum rates of acetaldehyde consumption also agree with Baldwin et al. at temperatures above about 740 K. However, between 600 K and 700 K, the predicted rate is considerably smaller than that measured. However, in this temperature region the rates (both measured and calculated) are very sensitive to the initial CH3CHO concentration, increasing by a factor of 2 when the initial CH3CHO is increased by 15%. Thus, comparisons of absolute rates near 813 K, where the sensitivity of the rate to initial concentration is much smaller, are probably more reliable. In Table III, product yields obtained by Baldwin et al. are compared with predicted yields. Again, the overall agreement is good, with the exception of the H2 and H2O2 yields. The good agreement between measured and predicted methane and ethane yields provides additional evidence that the value of $K_{eq}(101)$ determined in our experiments is reliable.

The data of Baldwin et al. provide rates of formation of H_2 , which were not determined in our experiments. In order to obtain the relatively high H_2 yields observed, the rate of reaction 87

$$CH_3O + M = CH_2O + H + M$$
 (87)

would need to be increased by a factor of 75 above the low pressure value [67] listed in Table II. The magnitude of this rate would then lie between the low pressure rate $(5x10^{13} \exp(-21000/RT))$ and the high pressure limiting value $(1.6x10^{14} \exp(-27500/RT))$ [68]. Even with such a rate

increase, however, the model does not correctly predict the observed decrease in H_2 yield as the temperature increases. This may indicate that other reactions not included in the model contribute to hydrogen formation in this temperature regime.

Baldwin et al. [20] reported further measurements of product yields at a temperature of 813 K for a variety of initial pressures and compositions. These experiments were simulated numerically, using the present reaction mechanism. The computed product yields for these six cases are compared with the measured data in Table IV. Predicted yields of H₂O and H₂O₂, not presented by Baldwin et al., are also shown. For CH₄, CH₂O, CH₃OH, C₂H₆, and CO the overall agreement is very good, but the model predictions for CO₂ and H₂ yields are quite low. As already discussed, the predicted mechanism for H₂ production depends on a rapid source of H atoms which then abstract H atoms from acetaldehyde to produce H₂. The rate of the primary source of H atoms, reaction 87, is uncertain under present conditions and this may account in part for the low predicted yields of H₂. Both predicted and measured CO₂ yields are quite small and the disagreement between the two sets of small values is probably not important.

The satisfactory overall agreement of the model results with both the acetaldehyde consumption rate and the product yields obtained by Baldwin et al. lends support to the validity of the mechanism in Table II. It is evident that the experimental results are not severely affected by changes in surface-to-volume ratio, reactor geometry, or surface preparation since the data from two different experimental facilities seem to be consistent with each other.

In the undiluted, high 02 cases and in the higher temperature cases of Baldwin et al., the early rates of reaction are very high (see Curve B of Fig. 2). As the temperature is increased above 600K, the computed time at which the maximum rate of reaction occurs is as short as 0.1 seconds after initiation. This time is much shorter than is observable in either the present experiments or those of Baldwin et al. and may contribute to experimental uncertainty in the observed maximum rate. In Fig. 6, all three sets of predictions for the maximum rate of fuel consumption have roughly the same shape, rising to a rather flat maximum, followed by a slight decrease from 650 K to 720-760 K, and then a rapid increase. However, in the Baldwin et al. experiments and in the present experiments as well, measurements of the rate of reaction were begun only after at least 2 seconds of reaction time. In the computer simulations, the rate of fuel consumption after 2 seconds can be considerably smaller that the actual maximum rate. For example, at 740 K on Curve B of Fig. 6, the computed maximum rate of acetaldehyde consumption is 6.95×10^{-9} moles/cm³-sec, attained at a reaction time of 0.5 seconds. However, by the time the reaction has proceeded for 2 seconds, the rate of acetaldehyde consumption has fallen to 4.98×10^{-9} moles/cm³-sec, a reduction of nearly 30%. Similar reductions of between 10% and 30% were computed for all of the mixtures over the temperature range of 710-750 K. Therefore. the measured maximum rates (as in Curve C of Fig. 6) will show a more pronounced local minimum in this temperature range than in the computed results because, in fact, the experiments are not able to observe the actual maximum rate.

C. Predicted product yields and radical concentrations

The variation in predicted product yields with temperature is illustrated in Fig. 7 for the low 0_2 (diluted) case. These yields were evaluated at a time when approximately one-third of the CH_3CH0 fuel had been consumed. The CO_2 and CH_3O_2H yields are appreciable at the lowest temperatures but decrease rapidly as the temperature is increased, effectively disappearing above about 600 K. The CO yield is consistently quite large over the entire range, and the CH_4 yield grows rapidly as the temperature increases above 650 K. Variations in methanol, formaldehyde, and water yields are also noted.

The corresponding radical species concentrations, again calculated after about one third of the acetaldehyde fuel has been consumed, are plotted in Fig. 8 for the diluted cases. The decrease in CH_3O_2 level is due to the temperature dependence of the equilibrium for Reaction 101 which drives the reaction to the left at higher temperatures as discussed earlier. The decrease in HO_2 also results from the reversal of this reaction, because the major source of HO_2 is the reaction of methoxy radicals with O_2 , reaction 88. Methoxy radicals are produced both from CH_3O_2 at low temperatures (reactions 23, 24, and 26) and also by reaction of methyl radicals with HO_2 at higher temperatures. Under high temperature-low O_2 conditions, little CH_3O will be present because there will be little CH_3O_2 or HO_2 formed during the reaction. Above 800 K the principal radical species is CH_3 , dominating HO_2 , CH_3O_3 , and CH_3CO_3 , all of which were more important than CH_3 at lower temperatures.

The principal reactions consuming the acetaldehyde fuel vary with temperature, since the radical populations also vary. This is illustrated in Fig. 9, showing the fraction of the total acetaldehyde consumption rate that is contributed by reactions with the indicated radical species for the diluted (low initial 02) mixtures. The populations of the abstracting radicals are controlled principally by the equilibria of Reactions 13 and 101. For example, as temperature increases, fewer methyl radicals combine with 02 to make CH302 and CH30, so less acetaldehyde is consumed by these radicals in reactions forming mathanol and methylhydroperoxide. Instead, methyl radicals react with acetaldehyde to produce methane by Reaction 7, consistent with Figs. 7 and 8. Nearly all of the H₂O production results from reaction 4 between OH and acetaldehyde, and the OH curve in Fig. 9 is virtually identical to the H₂O curve in Fig. 7. The overall nature of the oxidation process similarly changes significantly as the temperature changes. As already noted, consumption of acetaldehyde by radicals such as CH₃O₂ and CH₃CO₃ leads to substantial chain branching. However, when CH3, OH, or CH3O react with the fuel, there is no branching, because the reaction products CH4, H20, and CH30H are essentially unreactive. Therefore, the reaction rate slows as the temperature is increased in this regime because of the decreased branching.

Product yields in the undiluted (high 0_2) cases are plotted as functions of temperature in Fig. 10. Comparison with the low 0_2 results from Fig. 7 show that $C0_2$, H_20 , and CH_20 yields are higher and CH_4 and CH_30H yields are lower in the high 0_2 cases. These trends can be easily interpreted in terms of the influence of 0_2 levels on the equilibria in Reactions 13 and 101 and the competition between reactions 9 and 88. As 0_2 concentration is increased, the equilibrium shifts towards

the adduct side of these reactions, and abstraction of H atoms from methoxy by 0₂ to form CH₂0 becomes more important. The CH₃ levels are therefore lowered, reducing the CH₄ yields, while the increased production of CO₂ results from the shift in the equilibrium of Reaction 13. Both addition steps lead to increased production of OH in the higher 0₂ mixtures and therefore to higher production of H₂0. The radical species concentrations are shown in Fig. 11. It is interesting to note that the HO₂ and CH₃O₂ levels follow the negative temperature coefficient profile of Fig. 6. In contrast with the results plotted in Fig. 9, calculations show that the fastest reaction consuming acetaldehyde over the entire temperature range is Reaction 4 with OH, contributing more than 40% of the fuel consumption at all temperatures studied. At the lower temperatures, reactions of acetaldehyde with CH₃CO₃ and CH₃O also contribute significant fractions of the rate fuel consumption, while at 750 K and above, reactions with HO₂ and CH₃ are also important.

CONCLUSIONS

The proposed reaction mechanism provides a consistent description of the kinetics of acetaldehyde oxidation over the temperature range 550-900K. The present experimental results and those of Baldwin et al. [20] provide a demanding test of this mechanism, and most of the qualitative features and quantitative product yields measured in these experiments are reproduced by the model. This model predicts a region of negative temperature coefficient which coincides with that observed experimentally, and concentrations of radical and minor stable intermediate species, unavailable in the experiments, have been computed.

The keys to the oxidation mechanism, as determined from sensitivity analyses of the modeling results, were found to be the equilibria of the addition reactions of 0_2 to CH_3 and CH_3CO , the competing oxidation reactions of the CH_3O_2 and CH_3O radicals, and the thermal decomposition of the acetyl radical. Other less important sensitivities of computed product species yields led to refinements in reaction rate parameters for H atom abstraction from acetaldehyde. All of these rate parameter modifications are reflected in the mechanism given in Table II.

The importance of the pressure dependent reactions 13 and 101 may have important implications with respect to the kinetic modeling of knock in internal combustion engines [22]. Under conditions where knock can occur, pressures can approach 30-40 atmospheres, higher than those of the present study by a factor of about 100. From the present modeling study, it might be expected that such an increase in pressure could shift the negative temperature coefficient regime to higher temperatures than those of Figure 6. Although acetaldehyde is not an engine fuel itself, it is formed in

appreciable amounts during the combustion of practical fuels. More important, the same trends discussed here for the reactions of the methyl and acetyl radicals and the equilibria with the products of their addition reactions with 0_2 will be valid for the radical species produced by other hydrocarbon fuels. Since the end gases subject to knock experience temperatures below 1000 K for a large fraction of the time of a typical engine combustion cycle, the present results indicate very strongly that it is essential to include the competitive addition reaction paths discussed above in any kinetic modeling study of engine knock.

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Table I Product densities at 713 K

Species	Product density (molecules/cm ³ x 10 ⁻¹⁶)				
	Experiment	Mode1			
СН4	0.15	0.13			
C2H6	0.006	0.002			
СH30H	0.56	0.49			
CH ₂ 0	1.39	1.35			
CO	2.94	3.24			
C0 ₂	0.15	0.15			
H ₂ 0	1.5 - 3.0 ^a	1.3			
H ₂ 0 ₂	0.7	1.47			

 $^{^{}a}\text{The water concentration was uncertain because of the relatively high $\rm H_{2}O_{2}$ yield. The $\rm H_{2}O_{2}$ mass spectrum contains a mass fragment at 18 amu which interferes with the $\rm H_{2}O$ determination.}$

Initial concentrations: $CH_3CHO = 4.5 \times 10^{16}$; $O_2 = 8 \times 10^{17}$; $A=N_2=0$ molecules/cm³.

The measured product yields were obtained after 15 seconds of reaction time when 2.6x10 16 molecules/cm 3 of CH $_{3}\text{CHO}$ had been consumed.

Table II

Reaction mechanism for acetaldehyde oxidation Reaction rates are in cm 3 -mole-sec-kcal units, k=AT n exp(-Ea/RT)

		Forwa	rd ra	te		se rat		Ref
	Reaction	log A	n	Ea	log A	n	Ea	
1	CH3CHO = CH3+HCO	15.85	0	81./8	9.58	1_	0.00	[11]
2	CH3CH0+02 = CH3CO+H02	13.30	0.5	42.20	7.00	0.5	4.00	[11]
3	CH3CHO+H = CH3CO+H2	13.60	0	4.20	13.25	0	23.67	[24]
4	$CH_3CHO+OH = CH_3CO+H_2O$	13.00	0	0.00	13.28	0		[24,a]
5	CH3CH0+0 = CH3C0+0H	12.70	0	1.79	12.00	0	19.16	[24]
6	CH3CH0+H02 = CH3CO+H2O2	12.23	0	10.70	12.00	0	14.10	[11]
7	CH3CH0+CH3 = CH3CO+CH4	12.24	0	8.44	13.18	0	28.00	[25]
	CH3CH0+CH3CO3 = CH3CO+CH3CO3H	11.08	0	4.90	10.30	0		[105,a,b]
8	CH3CH0+CH3CU3 = CH3CH+CH3CH	11.06	0	1.28	11.48	0		[26,a,b]
9	CH3CH0+CH30 = CH3CÖ+CH3OH CH3CH0+CH3O2 = CH3CO+CH3O2H	9.55	0	5.05	9.70	0	10.10	a,c
11	CH3CH0+C2H502 = CH3C0+C2H502H	9.55	0	5.05	9.70	0	10.10	ď
11	CH3CHO+C2H5OZ = CH3+CO+M	16.26	0	14.40	11.20	0	5.97	е
	$CH_3CO+M = CH_3+CO+M$	10.00	0	-2.70	16.46	-1	37.30	[28,g,y]
13	CH3CO+O2 = CH3CO3	12.00	Ō	0.00	*			f_
14	CH3CO3+HO2 = CH3CO3H+O2	15.60	Ŏ	40.00	*			[29]
15	CH3CO3H = CH3CO2+OH	14.30	Ō	40.15	*			f
	$CH_{3}CO_{3}H = CH_{3}+CO_{2}+OH$	12.26	Ŏ	0.00	*			[30,g]
17	CH3CO3+CH3O2 = CH3CO2+CH3O+O2	11.48	Ŏ	0.00	*			_f,h
18	CH3CO3+CH3O2 = CH3CO2H+CH2O+O2	12.00	ŏ	0.00	*			f,i
19	CH3CO3+HO2 = CH3CO2+OH+O2	12.26	Ŏ	0.00	*			[30,j]
20	CH3CO3+CH3CO3 = CH3CO2+CH3CO2+O2	16.26	ŏ	14.40	*			[30,j]
21	CH3CO2+M = CH3+CO2+M	10.66	Ö	-2.60	12.48	0	39.00	[31]
22	$CH_{3}O_{2}+HO_{2} = CH_{3}O_{2}H+O_{2}$	12.95	ŏ	0.00	10.30	Ŏ	0.00	[32,a]
23	CH302+CH3 = CH30+CH30	12.99	Ö	0.00	*	•		$[\bar{3}3,k]^{-}$
24	$CH_3O_2 + HO_2 = CH_3O + OH + O_2$	11.26	Ŏ	0.00	*			i
25	CH302+CH302 = CH20+CH30H+02		Ö	2.20	*			1
26	$CH_2U_2+CH_2U_2 = CH_2U+CH_3U+U_2$	12.57		2.00	*			1
27	$CH_{3}U_{2}+CH_{3}U_{2} = CH_{3}U_{2}CH_{3}+U_{2}$	11.70	0	37.00	*			[35]
28	$CH_3O_2CH_3 = CH_3U+CH_3U$	15.48	Ŏ	43.00	13.53	1	34.57	m
29	$CH_2O_2H = CH_3O+OH$	14.81		1.00	13.48	ō	32.80	[36]
30	CH302H+OH = CH302+H20	13.51	0	1.00	13.48	Ŏ	32.80	[36]
31	$CH_{3}O_{2}H+OH = CH_{2}O_{2}H+H_{2}O$	13.40	0	4.00	13.48	Ŏ	32.80	f
32	$CH_{3}O_{2}H+CH_{3}O = CH_{3}O_{2}+CH_{3}OH$	11.85	0	4.00	13.48	Ŏ	32.80	f
33	$CH_3O_2H + CH_3O = CH_2O_2H + CH_3OH$	11.85	0	-2.60	12.48	ŏ	39.00	n
34	$CH_3O_2H+CH_3O = CH_2O_2H+CH_3OH$ $C_2H_5O_2+HO_2 = C_2H_5O_2H+O_2$	10.66	0	0.00	*	v	33.00	[33]
35	C2H5U2+HU2 = C2H5UTUHTU2	12.00	0	43.00	13.53	1	34.57	0
36	$C_{2}H_{5}O_{2}H = C_{2}H_{5}O_{7}+O_{7}H_{2}$	14.81	0	21.60	5.30	i	9.82	
37	$C_2H_5O = CH_3+CH_2O$	15.00	0		11.11	Ō	32.17	[33,38]
38	$C_2H_5O+O_2 = CH_3CHO+HO_2$	12.70	0	4.00	13.16	i	-10.98	
39	$CH_2OH+M = CH_2+OH+M$	18.48	0	80.00	7.00	1.66	11.44	[40]
40	CH2OH+HO2 = CH2OH+H2O2	12.80	0	19.36	7.00	1.66	24.68	[41]
41	CH2OH+OH = CH2OH+N2O	12.60	0	1.37		1.66	15.16	[39]
42	$CH_3OH+H = CH_2OH+H_2$	13.48	0	7.00	7.51 12.32	0	36.95	[39]
43	$CH_3OH+H = CH_3+H_2O$	12.72	0	5.34			18.43	
44	$CH_3OH+CH_3 = CH_2OH+CH_4$	11.26	0	9.80	6.70	1.66	8.35	[43]
45	$CH_2OH+O = CH_2OH+OH$	12.23	0	2.29	5.90	1.66	10.85	
46	$CH_2OH+CH_2O = CH_2OH+CH_3OH$	12.18	0	7.00	5.34	1.66 0	21.46	р [41]
47	$CH_3OH+OH = CH_3O+H_2O$	13.09	0	3.25	13.50		7.58	[39]
48	$CH_2OH+M = CH_2O+H+M$	13.40	0	29.00		-0.66	22.32	[44]
49		11.92	0	0.00	17.86	-1.00	۷۲.3۲	נדדן

Table II (continued)

Reaction mechanism for acetaldehyde oxidation Reaction rates are in cm 3 -mole-sec-kcal units, k=AT n exp(-Ea/RT)

	Forward rate	Reverse	
Reaction	log A n	a log A n	E _a 0.68 [45]
$50 \text{ H} + 0_2 = 0 + 0 \text{H}$	16.71 -0.82 10		6.95 [46]
51 H ₂ +O = H+OH		8.90 9.92 1 8.35 12.80 0	1.10 [46]
$52 \ 0 + H_2 0 = OH + OH$		5.15 13.98 0	20.30 [46]
53 H2+OH = H2O+H		1.00 15.36 0	45.90 [46]
54 H+02+M = HO2+M		5.00 23.15 -2	
55 H ₂ O+M = H+OH+M		3.70 16.00 0	0.00 [47]
56 OH+M = O+H+M		5.00 15.67 -0.2	28 0.00 [48]
57 O ₂ +M = O+O+M 58 H ₂ +M = H+H+M		5.00 15.48 O	0.00 [46]
59 HO ₂ +0 = OH+O ₂	13.70 0	1.00 13.81 0	56.61 [49]
60 HO2+H = OH+OH	- • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	1.90 13.08 0	40.10 [46]
$61 \text{ HO}_2 + \text{H} = \text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$		0.70 13.74 0	57.80 [46] 73.86 [49]
$62 \text{ HO}_2 + \text{OH} = \text{H}_2 \text{O} + \text{O}_2$		1.00 14.80 0 1.24 13.60 0	42.64 [50]
$63 H0_2 + H0_2 = H_20_2 + 0_2$			32.79 [46]
$64 H_2 O_2 + OH = H_2 O + HO_2$		1.80 13.45 0 3.75 11.86 0	
$65 H_2O_2 + H = HO_2 + H_2$		5.50 14.96 0	
$66 \text{ H}_2^2 \text{O}_2^2 + \text{M} = \text{OH} + \text{OH} + \text{M}$		0.77 9.23 1.5	=
67		3.65 15.23 0	85.50 [52]
68		7.60 12.44 0	
69 CO+O2 = CO2+O 70 CO+O+M = CO2+M		4.10 21.74 -1	
71 HCO+M = H+CO+M		9.00 11.70 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.55 [55]
72 HCO+0 ₂ = CO+HO ₂	12.48 0	0.00 12.95 0	
73 HCO+H = CO+H ₂		0.00 15.12 0	
74 HCO+O = CO+OH		0.00 14.46 0	
75 HCO+CH3 = CO+CH4		0.00 13.71 0.9 3.00 15.56 0	
$76 \text{ HCO+HO}_2 = \text{CH}_2\text{O}+\text{O}_2$		3.00 15.56 0 0.00 15.45 0	
77 HCO+OH = CO+H ₂ O	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	1.00 11.15 1	
78 CH ₂ 0+M = HCO+H+M		0.17 12.41 0	
79 CH20+OH = HCO+H20		0.50 13.42 0	25.17 [62]
80 CH20+H = HC0+H2		4.60 12.24 0	17.17 [64]
81 CH ₂ 0+0 = HCO+OH 82 CH ₂ 0+HO ₂ = HCO+H ₂ O ₂		8.00 10.34 0	
83 CH ₂ 0+CH ₃ 0 = HCO+CH ₃ 0H	11.78 0	3.30 8.47 0	
84 CH20+CH302 = HC0+CH302H		9.00 10.40 0	
85 CH20+C2H502 = HCO+C2H502H		9.00 10.40 0	
86 CH2O+CH2 = HCO+CH4		6.00 10.32 0. 1.00 9.00 1	
$87 \text{ CH}_3\text{O} + \text{M} = \text{CH}_2\text{O} + \text{H} + \text{M}$			
$88 \text{ CH}_3\text{O} + \text{O}_2 = \text{CH}_2\text{O} + \text{HO}_2$		2.70 11.11 0 0.00 12.19 0	
89 CH30+CH30 = CH30H+CH20		8.40 11.45 1	==
90 CH4+M = CH3+H+M		1.90 12.68 0	
91 CH4+H = CH3+H2		2.46 5.42 2.	1 17.14 [74]
92 CH4+OH = CH3+H2O		6.48 4.55 2.	
93 CH ₄ +0 = CH ₃ +OH 94 CH ₄ +HO ₂ = CH ₃ +H ₂ O ₂		8.00 11.50 0	
95 CH ₄ +CH ₃ 0 = CH ₃ +CH ₃ 0H	11.30 0	7.00 9.02 0	2.22 [71]
20 0114 0113033			

Table II (continued)

Reaction mechanism for acetaldehyde oxidation Reaction rates are in cm 3 -mole-sec-kcal units, k=AT n exp(-E $_a$ /RT)

		Reverse rate	Ref
	Forward rate	_	
Reaction	log A n E _a 12.60 0 0.0		72 [77]
96 CH3+OH = CH2O+H2			63 [78]
97 CH ₃ +0 = CH ₂ O+H			
98 CH2+O2 = CH3O+O		Y 7:111	
$99 \text{ CH}_3 + \text{HO}_2 = \text{CH}_4 + \text{U}_2$		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
$100 \text{ CH}_3 + \text{HO}_2 = \text{CH}_3 \text{U} + \text{UH}$	13.51 0 0.0		53[103,106]
101 CH3+02+M = CH302+M	16.15 0 -1.1		00 w
102 C2H6 = CH3+CH3	19.35 -1 88.3		
103 C2H6+02 = C2H5+H02	13.00 0 51.0		32 [82]
104 C2H6+H = C2H5+H2	2.73 3.5 5.2		
$105 \text{ C}_2\text{H}_6 + 0\text{H} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	9.94 1.1 1.8		72 [75,84]
$106 C_2H_6+0 = C_2H_5+0H_1$	14.05 0 7.8		
107 CoHc+HOo = CoHc+HoU2	12.78 0 19.0		
108 C2H6+C2H4 = C2H5+C2H5	11.70 0 60.0		
109 C2H6+CH30 = C2H5+CH30H	11.48 0 7.0		
110 C2H6+CH3 = C2H5+CH4	-0.26 4 8.2		= =
111 C ₂ H ₅ +M = C ₂ H ₄ +H+M	15.30 0 30.0		- - -
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	12.00 0 5.0		
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	11.90 0 0.0		
114 C-U-+00 = CoHe00	12.00 0 0.0		
$114 \ C_2H_5 + O_2 = C_2H_5O_2$ $115 \ C_2H_5 + C_2H_6 = C_2H_4 + C_2H_6$	12.48 0 0.0		= =
$\frac{115}{115} \frac{C_2^2 H_5 + C_2^2 H_3}{C_2^2 H_4 + C_2^2 H_4} = \frac{C_2^2 H_4 + C_2^2 H_4}{C_2^2 H_2 + H_2^2 H_3}$	16.97 0 77.2		
116 C2H4+M = C2H2+H2+M	18.80 0 108.7	70 17.30 0 0.	
117 C2H4+M = C2H3+H+M	7.18 2 6.0	0 6.24 2 5.	
$118 C_2H_4 + H = C_2H_3 + H_2$	12.68 0 1.2	23 12.08 0 14.	
$119 C_2H_4 + 0H = C_2H_3 + H_2O$	13.40 0 5.0	00 12.48 0 15.	
$120 C_2H_4+0 = CH_2O+CH_2$	12.30 0 0.9	96 11.78 0 16 .	
$121 C_2H_4 + 0H = CH_2O + CH_3$	12.52 0 1.1	l3 11.20 0 31.	18 [91]
122 C2H4+0 = CH3+HCO	14.90 0 31.5	11.09 1 -10.	36 [89]
$123 C_2H_3+M = C_2H_2+H+M$	12.00 0 10.0	00 12.00 0 17.	
$124 C_2H_3 + 0_2 = C_2H_2 + H0_2$	11.90 0 0.0	00 13.78 0 66.	
$125 \text{ C}_{2}^{2}\text{H}_{3}^{3} + \text{C}^{1}\text{H}_{3} = \text{C}_{2}^{1}\text{H}_{2}^{2} + \text{C}^{1}\text{H}_{4}$	13.30 0 2.5		
$126 C_2H_3+H = C_2H_2+H_2$	14.00 0 114.0		77 [93]
127 C2H2+M = C2H+H+M	12.60 0 28.0		
128 C2H2+U2 = MUU+NUU	14.30 0 19.0	17	
129 CoHo+H = COH+HO	12.78 0 7.0	00 12.73 0 16.	
$130 \text{ C}_2\text{H}_2 + 0\text{H} = \text{C}_2\text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{U}$	15.50 -0.6 17.0		.91 [95]
131 C2H2+U = L2H+VN	13.83 0 4.0		.67 [96]
132 C2H2+O = CH2+CO			
$133 C_2H_2+0 = HCCU+H$			
134 C2H2+OH = CH2CU+H			
135 CH ₂ CO+H = CH ₃ +CO			
$136 \text{ CH}_2\text{CO} + 0 = \text{HCO} + \text{HCO}$		10	
$137 \text{ CH}_2\text{CO} + \text{OH} = \text{CH}_2 + \text{HCO}$.00 [97]
$138 \text{ CH}_{2}\text{CO+M} = \text{CH}_{2} + \text{CO+M}$.00 [97]
$139 \text{ CH}_{2}\text{CO}+0 = \text{HCCO}+\text{OH}$	13.70 0 8.1 12.88 0 3.1		
$140 \text{ CH}_{2}^{-}\text{CO} + \text{OH} = \text{HCCO} + \text{H}_{2}\text{O}$.00 [97]
141 CH2CO+H = HCCO+H2	13.88 0 8.	UU 11.39 0 0.	

Table II (continued)

Reaction mechanism for acetaldehyde oxidation Reaction rates are in cm³-mole-sec-kcal units, $k=AT^n \exp(-E_a/RT)$

	Forward rate			Rever	Ref		
Reaction	log A	n	Ea	log A	n	Ea '	
142 HCCO+OH = HCO+HCO	13.00	0	0.00	13.68	0	40.36	[97]
$143 \ HCCO+H = CH_2+CO$	13.70	0	0.00	13.82	0	39.26	[97]
144 HCCO+O = HCŌ+CO	13.53	0	2.00	13.92	0	128.30	[97]
$145 C_2H+O_2 = HCO+CO$	13.00	0	7.00	12.93	0	138.40	[95]
146 C2H+O = CO+CH	13.70	0	0.00	13.50	0	59.43	[95]
$147 \text{ CH}_2 + 0_2 = \text{HCO+OH}$	14.00	0	3.70	13.61	0	76.58	[100]
148 CH2+0= CH+OH	11.28	0.7	25.00	10.77	0.7	25.93	[101]
149 CH2+H = CH+H2	11.43	0.7	25.70	11.28	0.7	28.73	[101]
$150 \text{ CH}_{2}^{2} + 0H = \text{CH} + H_{2}0$	11.43	0.7	25.70	11.91	0.7	43.88	[102]
$151 \text{ CH} + 0_2 = \text{CO} + \text{OH}^2$	11.13	0.7	25.70	11.71	0.7		[102]
$152 \text{ CH} + 0^{2}_{2} = \text{HCO} + 0$	13.00	0	0.00	13.13	0	71.95	[93]
153 CH ₂ 0 ₂ H = CH ₂ 0+OH	15.60	0	23.00	13.50	1	14.57	f

no reverse rate included

a Rate adjusted to fit experimental data

b Room temperature rate combined to estimate E_a (see text) c Originally assumed equal to rate of Reaction 84

d Assumed equal to rate of Reaction 10

e Low pressure value estimated from high pressure measurements [107]

f Estimated

g Room temperature measurement with negative activation energy adjusted to fit observed CO/CO2 ratio and overall rate (see text)

h Assumed approximately equal to rate of Reaction 25

i Assumed equal to rate of Reaction 24

j Sum of rates of Reactions 20 and 21 equal to value from Ref [30] Rate of reaction 21 assumed equal to rate of Reaction 12

k Assumed equal to rate of analogous reaction of C2H5O2 at 298 K [33]

¹ Sum of reactions 25, 26 and 27 agrees with Parkes [32]. $E_{25}-E_{26}$ taken from ref [34]

m See Appendix

n Assumed equal to rate of Reaction 22

o Assumed equal to rate of Reaction 29

p Assumed equal to rate of Reaction 95

q Based originally on Lloyd [49], then adjusted to fit data. Rate shown agrees well with Baldwin and Walker [65]

r Assumed equal to rate of Reaction 9

s Given rate is in reasonable agreement with ref [34]

t Given rate is in reasonable agreement with ref [66]

u See also ref [68] v See also ref [70]

w High pressure limiting expression determined from reverse reaction rate [79] used at 553 K. Adjusted for falloff [80] at 713 K.

x Assumed equal to rate of Reaction 113

y Reverse rate calculated from thermochemistry in [14].

Table III

Comparison of Reaction Products at 713 K and 813 K between experimental and computed results Experimental data are from Baldwin et al. [20] after consumption of 10% of the initial acetaldehyde

Temperature	71	3 K	813 K			
Initial pressure, mm Hg, of:	CH3CHO 02 N2	1.: 30. 28.:	0	2. 30. 28.	0	
Product yield, expressed as a		expmt.	comp.	expmt.	comp.	
percentage of the	CO ₂	-	2.6	0.7	0.2	
aldehyde consumed:	CO_	=100	98	83	99	
	CH ₂ 0	65	65	32	29	
	CH4	10	8.5	50	49	
	C2H6	0.5	0.2	6	3.9	
	CH ₃ ŏH	25	20	7	12	
	H2Ŏ2	10	37	5	11	
	H2 -	15	0.2	7	0.4	
	H20	-	34	-	17	

- 45 -Table IV Comparison between experimental product yields [20] and computed results, evaluated at 10% fuel consumption

Initial temperature is 813 K in all cases

Mixture

Initial Mixture, m	m Hg	1	2	33	4	5	6	
CH ₃ CH0 0 ₂ N ₂		0.5 30.0 29.5	2.0 30.0 28.0	8.0 30.0 22.0	2.0 3.0 55.0	0.5 7.5 7.0	4.0 60.0 56.0	
Reaction Products,	percen	tage of (СН3СНО со	nsumed				
CH ₄	a) b)	46.0 33.0	49.0 49.0	61.0 58.0	83.0 91.0	60.0 76.0	41.0 32.0	
CH ₂ 0	a) b)	39.0 50.0	32.0 29.0	20.0 11.0	7.5 0.5	26.0 8.8	39.0 44.0	
СН30Н	a) b)	4.0 5.1	7.2 10.6	10.0 15.0	4.6 1.3	8.0 3.1	10.0 16.0	
C ₂ H ₆	a) b)	5.4 4.3	5.8 3.9	4.3	2.2	3.1 5.5	4.6	
CO	a) b)	108.0 102.0	83.0 99.0	93.0 91.0	98.0 97.0	94.0 99.0	107.0 101.0	
co ₂	a) b)	2.5 0.1	0.7 0.2	1.6 0.3	1.4 0.1	0.5 0.1	1.8 0.3	
H ₂	a) b)	12.5 0.7	7.2 0.4	5.3 0.2	2.8 0.1	11.2 0.1	11.5 0.6	
H ₂ 0	b)	35.4	16.7	7.0	1.9	7.1	24.0	
H202	b)	23.3	17.6	7.9	0.9	7.7	24.8	

a) Experimental value b) Calculated value

FIGURE CAPTIONS

- 1. Concentration-time profiles of CH₃CHO at 553 K. Initial conditions for the solid curve: CH₃CHO = 4.7×10^{16} ; $0_2 = 7.1 \times 10^{16}$; N_2 (or Ar) = 7.6×10^{17} molecules/cm³. Initial conditions for the dashed curve: CH₃CHO = 4.7×10^{16} ; $0_2 = 8.35 \times 10^{17}$ molecules/cm³; N_2 (or Ar) = 0.0. Individual symbols represent values predicted using the numerical model.
- 2. Concentration-time profiles of CH₃CHO at 713 K. Initial conditions for the solid curve: CH₃CHO = 4.52×10^{16} ; $0_2 = 6.77 \times 10^{16}$; N_2 (or Ar) = 7.33×10^{17} molecules/cm³. Initial conditions for the dashed curve: CH₃CHO = 4.52×10^{16} ; $0_2 = 8.0 \times 10^{17}$ molecules/cm³; N_2 (or Ar) = 0.0. Individual symbols represent values predicted using the numerical model.
- 3a. Product yields for low initial O₂ concentration (diluted)
 3b. experiments at 553 K. Same initial conditions as Fig. 1, solid curve. Individual symbols represent computed values.
- 4a. Product yields for low initial O₂ concentration (diluted)
 4b. experiments at 713 K. Same initial conditions as Fig. 2, solid curve. Individual symbols represent computed values.
- 5a. Product yields for high initial 02 concentration (undiluted)
 5b. experiments at 553 K. Same initial conditions as Fig. 1, dashed curve. Individual symbols represent computed values. The predicted ethane yield is 1x10⁻⁵; the upper limit to the measured ethane yield is 5x10⁻⁵ per acetaldehyde consumed.
- 6. Computed results for maximum rate of acetaldehyde consumption in (A) low initial O2 concentration and (B) high initial O2 concentration mixtures. Curve C represents experimental results of Baldwin et al. [20]. Curve D shows calculated maximum rates using the reaction mechanism in Table II and the initial conditions of Baldwin et al. (CH3CHO:O2:N2=2:30:28 at a total pressure of 60 torr).
- 7. Computed product species yields in low initial 02 concentration cases.
- 8. Computed radical species yields in low initial θ_2 concentration cases.
- 9. Reactions consuming acetaldehyde in low initial 02 concentration cases, showing abstracting radical species and the fraction of the total acetaldehyde consumption contributed by reactions with that radical.
- 10. Computed product species yields in high initial 0_2 concentration cases.
- 11. Computed radical species yields in high initial 0_2 concentration cases.

A-1. Ion current at 48 amu as a function of the residence time of CH₃0₂H in the reactor. For data taken at 553 K, the initial CH₃0₂H pressure was 0.8 torr; the pure CH₃0₂H was diluted to 52 torr total pressure with argon after 40 sec of reaction, producing the small break in the curve. At 513 K, the initial pressures were CH₃0₂H = 0.55 torr and Ar = 50 torr.

APPENDIX

As stated in the Experimental Section, the response of the mass spectrometer to CH₃O₂H was calibrated by injection of the pure compound into the reactor at 553 K. During the course of this calibration procedure, the intensity of the parent ion signal (48 amu) and the principal fragment (47 amu) decreased, indicating that the compound was being consumed. Figure A-1 presents CH₃O₂H ion-current vs time profiles obtained at two temperatures, which allow us to estimate the rate of decay of CH₃O₂H in our reactor. At 553 K, the rate of consumption was nearly exponential over approximately a factor of 10 in concentration. The first forty seconds of the plotted data were obtained with only CH₃O₂H in the reactor at an initial pressure of 0.8 torr. After this initial period, 52 torr of argon was introduced into the reactor causing a small change in the ion current. However, there was no significant change in the decay rate at the higher pressure, indicating that the rate is not very pressure dependent under these conditions.

The first order rate constant determined from these data is $8.5 \times 10^{-3}~\rm sec^{-1}$ at 553 K. At 513 K the rate constant in the presence of 50 torr of argon is $2.7 \times 10^{-3}~\rm sec^{-1}$, which indicates that the apparent activation energy is approximately 16 kcal/mole. This value is much smaller than the 44 kcal/mole endothermicity of the homogeneous reaction 29 [114] and smaller than the 38-40 kcal/mole activation energies measured in the pyrolysis of larger aldyl hydroperoxides [115]. It is probable that wall catalysis or free radical chain reactions are occurring in our measurements, which increase the rate of CH₃0₂H consumption; the wall catalysis would significantly decrease the activation energy below that of the homogeneous reaction. For these reasons, the rate constants

presented above are upper limits to the homogeneous, unimolecular rate of reaction 29. The upper limit at $553 \text{ K} (8.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}^{-1})$ is a factor of 6 smaller than an estimate of the homogeneous rate constant by Benson [29]. The expression presented in Table II was obtained from our upper limit at 553 K using Benson's reasonable estimate of 43 kcal/mole for the activation energy of the homogeneous reaction.

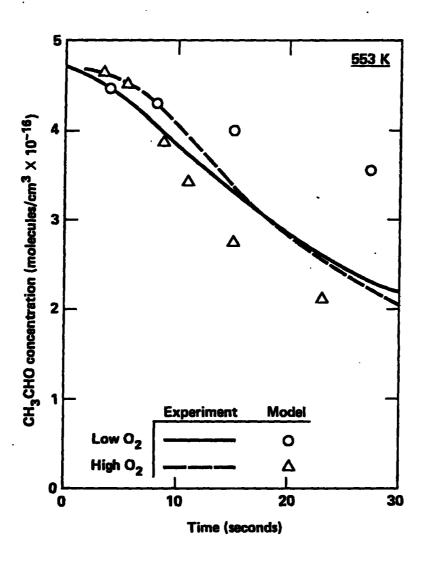


Fig. 1

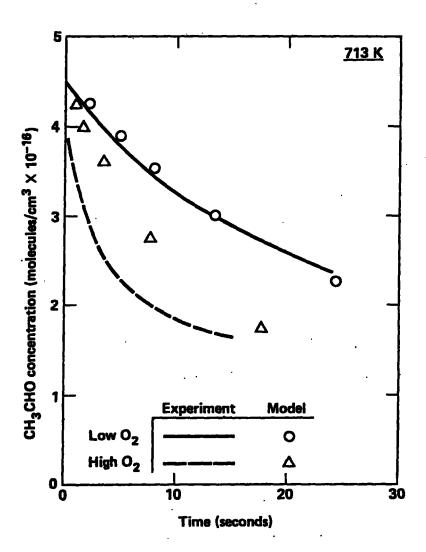


Fig. 2

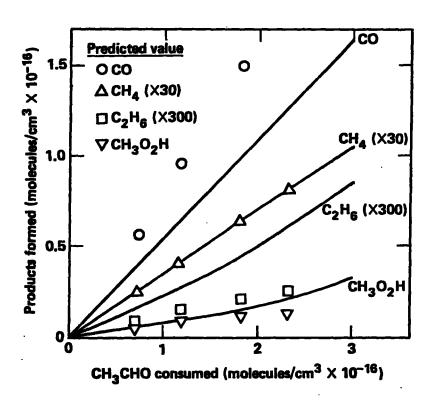


Fig. 3a

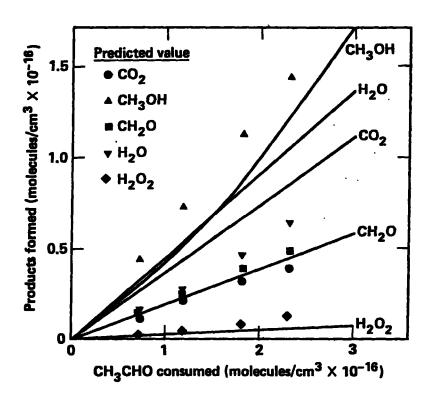


Fig. 3b

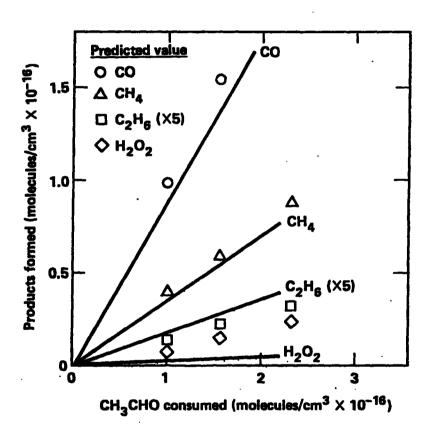


Fig. 4a

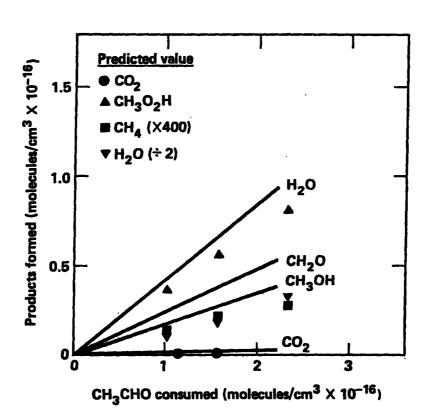


Fig. 4b

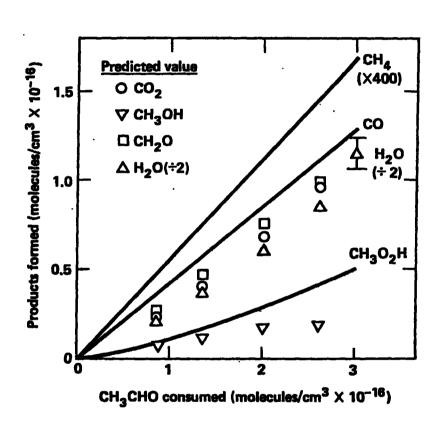


Fig. 5a

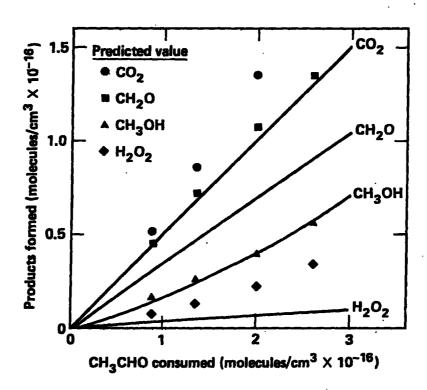


Fig. 5b

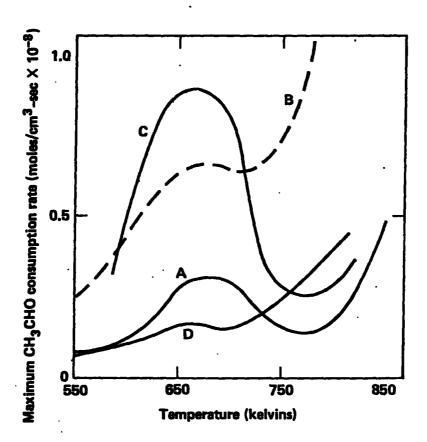


Fig. 6

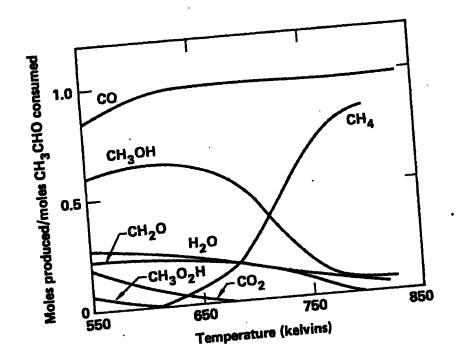


Fig. 7

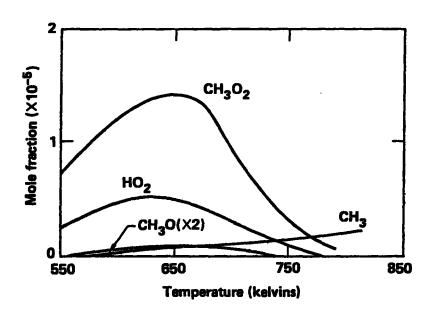


Fig. 8

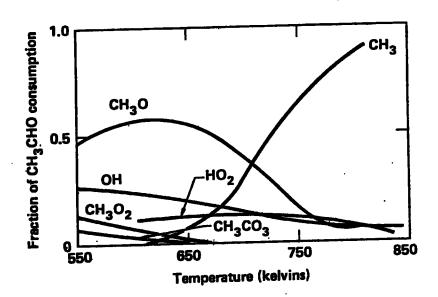


Fig. 9

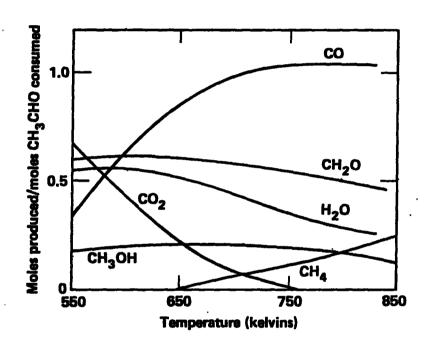


Fig. 10

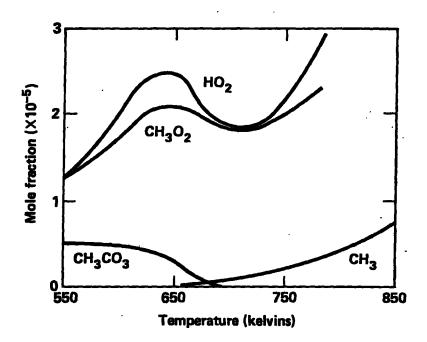


Fig. 11

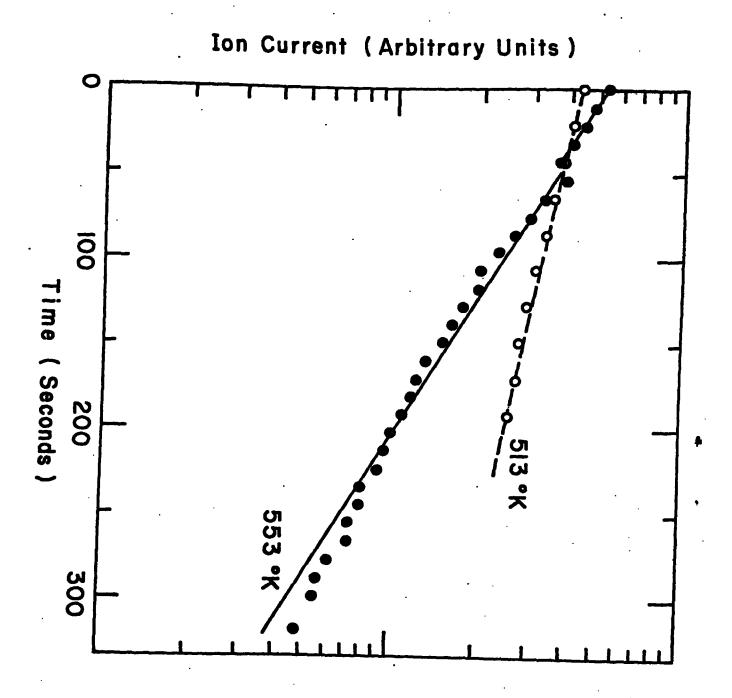


Fig. A-1